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THE SCHOOL REVIEW

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THE VALUE OF STRAIGHT THINKING

When a great business corporation pays for advertisements lauding study and high-grade scholarship there must be a sound reason for it. The Western Electric Company has been printing in college papers all over the country some remarkably effective advice to college students. Two examples are quoted in full. These appeared in the *Daily Maroon*, a publication edited and managed by the students of the University of Chicago.

THIS JUNIOR IS LEARNING TO BE A BANKER

If you are putting in three hours a day in the electrical laboratory, don't be surprised twenty years later to find yourself promoting a public utility bond issue. Or if you start in newspaper work, as like as not later on you will turn to manufacturing or advertising or law.

You don't know where opportunity or inclination will lead you. This fact has a great deal to do with your work at college—not so much the things you learn as the way you learn them.

Don't think of education as a memory test in names and dates and definitions. That knowledge is important, but only as an incidental. Of far greater value is the habit of getting at underlying laws, the basic principles which tie facts together.

The work of the pioneers in electrical experiment, at first glance confusing, is simplified once you realize that much of it hinged upon a single chemical phenomenon, the action of the voltaic cell.

Analyze your problems. Look for fundamentals. Learn to connect a law or an event with what went before and what comes after. Make your education a training in logical thinking.

This ability to think straight, whether acquired in engineering or arts, is the biggest thing you can get at college. Its aid as a means to success applies equally to whatever work you take up—since mental processes are the same everywhere. It is the power which enables a mechanic to become sales manager, a lawyer to head a great industrial organization. Develop it, if you would be ready when your big opportunity comes.

DOES IT HURT MUCH TO OWN ONE?

There is a campus saying that if a man has won a Phi Beta Kappa key or other honorary fraternity emblem, he had better keep it out of sight when he goes looking for a job.

Still there are men who ranked high at college and who haven't turned out altogether failures in life. Strange though it may seem, more and more such men are winning positions pretty high up in the commercial and industrial world.

Call it chance. Say they succeeded in spite of their scholarship. But, seriously, is it too much to trace a logical connection between a man's proficiency in getting ready for his vocation and his success in that vocation?

Surely it is common sense that the better grip you get on your work now, the more easily you can handle the big jobs later on.

This question of scholarship is far bigger than whether you like a certain emblem and the men who wear it. The value of the emblem is what it stands for—knowledge and the ability to think straight.

Develop this ability where and how you will, but develop it—because in the world of affairs they reward it liberally.

The text of these advertisements is reinforced by such side comments as these:

The executives of this company have been chosen from all branches of the organization. It doesn't make much difference where you learn to think straight, so long as you learn.

Maybe it's against all campus tradition, but some men who stood high at college and who entered this company years ago have since become its executives.

SOCIAL STUDIES IN THE HIGH SCHOOL

The Vocational Education Association of the Middle West has published a pamphlet containing concrete suggestions and sample lessons for a course in social science. The titles of some

of the lessons give an idea of the scope of the course. Lesson 1 is entitled "Getting a Job" and is outlined in these divisions:

1. Why boys and girls should seek jobs where they can learn and advance, even though the initial wage is low.
2. Statistics as to wages in various industries.
3. Opportunities to rise in large corporations and how they are taken advantage of.
4. Employment agencies—good and bad.

Then follow lessons and outlines like these:

EVOLUTION OF THE MODERN INDUSTRIAL ORGANIZATION

1. Hunting economy.
2. Agricultural economy; the feudal system and modern agriculture.
3. Rise of towns and trade and craft associations.
4. The domestic system.
5. The factory system.

Bring out increasing prosperity of labor plus increased dependence; and increased change of general suffering if all parts of society do not function co-operatively. Illustrate by general strike affecting a necessity like coal. We pay for our advanced civilization by a tax on our social qualities. Either capital, labor, or the public can precipitate a crisis.

IMPORTANCE OF CAPITAL

1. Capital and labor in one person—farmer.
2. How a corporation is organized and gets its capital; stocks and bonds; reinvestment of profits.
3. Watered stock.
4. Rewards to capital: profits and dividends, rent, interest.

ECONOMIC ORGANIZATION

1. Business men's associations and corporations, organized for profit, which may come in two ways: increasing efficiency and output, or raising prices and keeping down wages.
2. Organizations of labor, designed to raise wages, shorten hours, and regulate discipline, but not to increase efficiency and output.
3. Special aims and methods of trade union, syndicalist, Bolshevik, I.W.W., socialist, anarchist. Learn to discriminate.
4. Labor warfare and its results; the strike, the lockout.
5. Methods of co-operation between capital and labor.

As a sample lesson the following list of questions is suggested in connection with Lesson 1, "Getting a Job."

Ask the following questions of as many members of the class as the hour permits and encourage free discussion by the class of all points raised: What are you going to do when you are a man? What makes a good job? Have you a good job? Are you in a job where you are learning something? Can you be proud of your job? Does it help you physically? Does it make you think? What requirements does it make of a successful worker? What wages do you get? What wages can you get if you stay on this job? What are the other people in your shop getting from it? What has become of the boys or girls you know who have had this job? Is there a good chance to advance from it in your own shop? To what? Does it prepare you for anything else outside? Why is it so important to get the right sort of job at the start? Does this necessarily mean to get the best pay at the start? Are there good jobs in your factory—good for boys—that you could get? Is it easy to get jobs as you get older? How do you go about getting jobs? Can you show whether schooling has helped people you know to advance in their work?

As the class answers and discusses these questions, lead them to think along the lines outlined in Lesson 1.

Copies of the pamphlet can be secured for twenty cents each from L. W. Wahlstrom, 1711 Estes Avenue, Chicago. The full title is *Report of Committee on Teaching Social Science in High Schools and Industrial Classes*.

COLLEGE ADMISSION IN THE SOUTHERN STATES

The Carnegie Foundation, through its secretary, Dr. Clyde Furst, has made a study of the entrance requirements of the colleges belonging to the Association of Colleges and Secondary Schools of the Southern States. The findings of this investigation are printed in a pamphlet which can be secured from the Carnegie Foundation, 522 Fifth Avenue, New York City.

Dr. Furst reports that 35 per cent of the matriculants for the class investigated, namely, the Freshman class in liberal arts entering in the autumn of 1921, were women. Of the total group of 8,826 Freshmen, 1,001 had not graduated from a secondary school; 8,250 entered college on certificates, 229 on the basis of certificates and examinations, and only 67 on the basis of examinations alone. The prevailing requirement is fifteen or more units of secondary-school work, but 1,439 students had more than sixteen units.

The following paragraphs give the details of the offerings in preparatory subjects:

The distribution among the various subjects of the numbers of entrance units offered by the matriculating students bears out the preceding paragraphs. The offering of four units in English by 4,921 students is characteristic of the South and West; northern and eastern institutions are apt to give but three units' credit for four years of work in English. That 1,900 students should have offered four units of Latin is characteristic of the subject. The offering of four units in history by 1,787 students and of four units in mathematics by 1,136 students may be explained either by unusually extended courses in these subjects or perhaps by some such generous definition of a unit as probably underlies the offering of 4.5, 5, 5.5, 6, and 6.5 units in a single subject by 103 students.

The opposite end of the scale might be called the area of hospitality. The offering of 6,560 half-units, particularly in the sciences, is very questionable. The hundred miscellaneous subjects in which 2,640 half-units were offered include arithmetic, chorus, debating, glee club, penmanship, poultry, and war gardens, as well as Arabic, Chinese, Japanese, Norwegian, and Russian. Frequently these half-units represent a combination of two subjects, sometimes of three or four. A score of students also offered fragments of units as small as one-third, one-fourth, one-fifth, or one-tenth of a unit. The number of single units also, 17,081, is large. By far the larger proportion of the offering, however, is evidently made up of substantial courses of study of two or three or four years' duration in the same subject.

STUDY ROOMS IN EVENING SCHOOLS

In a bulletin published by the State Board of Education of Connecticut, Mr. A. F. Mayhew, assistant superintendent of schools in New Haven, gives an account of an aid to study which might advantageously be established in many places. The fact is that relatively few pupils in public schools have ideal conditions for study at home.

Superintendent Mayhew's statement is in part as follows:

A distinctive feature of the evening schools of New Haven is the study rooms for day-school pupils maintained by the board in the elementary schools. These rooms have been in operation for several years and have proved of inestimable value to the many pupils who attend. The rooms are located in districts largely populated by non-English speaking people where home conditions are not always conducive to home study. It was to give these pupils a chance equal to that of other children and an opportunity of doing their home work under suitable conditions that the study rooms were opened in the evening schools.

A number of such rooms are maintained in the New Haven evening schools. Children from the seventh and eighth grades are permitted to attend as well as pupils from the high school. These classes are under the supervision of regular day-school teachers and principals. Necessary paper is furnished the pupils, and reference books, encyclopedias, maps, and charts are available. The schools open at 7:00 P.M. and continue until 9:15. Pupils in the grades are allowed to leave at 8:15 or 8:45. The younger pupils are urged to complete their work as soon as possible in order that they may return home early. The older pupils remain until 9:15 usually, unless they have completed their required work earlier, in which case they are dismissed with the younger pupils.

Where two rooms are maintained in the same building the pupils are divided according to grade, the younger or elementary pupils working in one room with an experienced grade teacher and the high-school pupils in another room with a principal as the supervisor.

Each pupil attending the study class takes with him all the textbooks and materials required for the preparation of his lesson. If he has not enough work to keep him busy for the full session, the pupil is urged to have with him a book in which he is interested, and whatever time remains, after lessons are prepared, may be devoted to silent reading. By careful supervision of this reading material, showing an interest in the child, and giving an occasional word of suggestion, a better taste for reading may be engendered. By noting the subjects selected by some for this reading, we have been able to discover the child's real interests, and thereby assist him to correlate his own with other interests.

Varied groups of pupils make use of the study rooms. First comes the ambitious child who takes advantage of every opportunity for improvement; and second, the child from the extremely poor home which offers no accommodation, either in space or comfort, to the student looking for a quiet spot in which to do his home work. This year an increased number of the latter type sought admission to the study classes, because of the exceptional labor conditions which resulted in unusually overcrowded, poorly-lighted, and insufficiently-heated rooms. Possibly half the class is made up of children indifferent to their class standing and manifesting little interest in anything. These are urged by their teachers to join the study classes. In most cases the child only has to be approached, but in some instances the parent is also consulted, the study-room plan explained, the advantage to the child made clear, and his co-operation solicited. In addition to the grade pupils, there are some first- and second-year high-school students who take advantage of the study rooms and are very regular attendants.

Teachers conducting study rooms should be capable of quick adjustments and should be able to assist with work in the grades and with work in most of the high-school subjects. For the most part since the first study room was

opened grammar-school principals have been selected to take charge of these rooms.

The high-school room requires a teacher of rather broad experience as the work being done by the pupils includes practically all the courses offered in the high schools. With an average of about thirty-six pupils each doing different work the task of the supervisor is not an easy one. While it was not originally intended that the supervisor should also be a tutor, nevertheless that situation has generally developed so that at present his entire time is given to helping those who need assistance.

The study room appeals to me as one of the most worth-while features of our evening schools. The time in the day school does not admit of much, if any, supervised study. The day is too short, the curriculum too full, and much of the preparation of lessons must be done at home. Anything that will bring an uninterested child more closely into sympathy with his school life, that will attract him to the business of his small world, is good, and this is what the study rooms may do. The opportunity is great for the ambitions, but the study room is a boon to those living in cramped quarters.

Home work cannot be satisfactorily done unless conditions suitable for undisturbed study are supplied. Such conditions are not usually found in the cramped homes in crowded districts. Homes in such districts are not usually well heated, lighted, or ventilated. All these conditions do exist in the study rooms, making them ideal places for study. However, the benefit of supervision is also of great assistance to the pupils who attend. A pupil not understanding his work is quickly set right, thus saving him time and failure.

It is of even greater value to those children allowed by indifferent parents to spend their evenings on the streets, getting into undesirable company and bad habits.

MATHEMATICS IN THE HIGH SCHOOL

The high-school research bulletins sent out by the Los Angeles city schools continue to reflect the stimulating work carried on by Professor Bobbitt in arousing the high-school teachers of that city to discuss the reorganization of their curriculum. The introduction of the bulletin dealing with the objectives of mathematics teaching may be quoted as a typical illustration of the kind of thinking which these bulletins stir up.

It is probable that no department of the high school has a more difficult or baffling problem of reorganization of its activities than the mathematics department. Let us illustrate.

The city has decided that commercial students going into business do not need algebra, geometry, or trigonometry for general, cultural, or disciplinary training.

Since this is a large and representative group of students, it appears to follow, if this decision is correct, that students in general do not need algebra, geometry, or trigonometry for general, cultural, or disciplinary training.

The city has decided that commercial students need full and intensive training in the mathematics of their vocation.

This probably typifies the need of every vocational group. It needs full and intensive training in the mathematics of its vocation. But the mathematics will differ greatly from vocation to vocation and must be administered, therefore, according to the special needs and as a part of the vocational training.

The vocational mathematics for commercial students is administered in this city as a vocational course in the commercial department.

This appears to represent the proper placement of all vocational mathematics courses, not in the general department of mathematics, but in the appropriate vocational department.

It is the belief of the writer that these decisions of the city as regards the mathematics of the commercial students are educationally correct and that the deductions that appear naturally to follow are educationally correct.

If this is true, then algebra, geometry, and trigonometry have justifiable place in the curriculum only when they are necessary portions of vocational courses; and in such cases the specific content is differently dictated by different vocations.

These statements are equally applicable to those who finish their schooling with the high school and to those who take additional years of work in college. Neither the length nor the place of one's training dictates one's needs.

In the foregoing statements there is one possibility of error. It may be that commercial students *do* need the disciplinary values of algebra and geometry, but that they must forego them because of the exigencies of the time schedule; that those who take the longer training of both high school and college need not forego them and therefore may secure the disciplinary values. There is, however, no proof of the disciplinary values. The general intelligence quotient does not seem to be raised by a study of algebra and geometry; and one, therefore, is not given greater power to think in general outside of the mathematical fields.

The college-entrance demand is largely dictated by the disciplinary hypothesis—without proofs. In far larger measure, however, it is held to *for selective purposes*. It is not that the students need algebra and geometry, but that the colleges need a selected body of students, and algebra and geometry have been, aside from classic languages, until recently, the best selective devices. So long as the colleges demand them for this purpose, the high schools must administer them for this purpose. They should know, however, that they are doing it for the good of the colleges and not because they are demonstrably serving their students.

COLLEGE ENTRANCE EXAMINATIONS

The *New York Evening Post* gives an interesting summary of a personal experiment conducted by a preparatory-school teacher:

Perhaps it is not altogether a bad sign that school and college officers are trying on themselves the situations they impose upon others. Last year Morgan Barnes, of the Thacher School, California, a Harvard man thirty years out of college, took incognito the examinations of the College Entrance Examination Board, just to see what they were like. He doesn't say so himself, but the records of the board show he made the highest ratings of all who took his set of examinations except in one subject.

What Mr. Barnes says about the College Entrance Examination Board, therefore, is more interesting than if it came from other schoolmasters. Writing about his experience in the Harvard *Alumni Bulletin*, he says: "In one case I was penalized three points because a rather carefully and entirely defensible answer failed to accord with the one selected and agreed upon by the readers after conference. In another instance the reader wrote: 'The correct translation is——,' giving an absolutely incorrect rendering, and in reply to my challenge of his accuracy begged to be excused from 'controversy.'"

In the main, however, Mr. Barnes says he found the penalties imposed as reasonable as "such disabilities can in their nature be." He concludes that schools should cease to make the College Entrance Board examinations "the chief end of preparatory study and teaching," and that colleges should permit first-hand information from the students' teachers to supplement generously an unfavorable numerical rating.

INSTRUCTION ADAPTED TO GROUPS OF DIFFERING ABILITY

In the Manual Arts High School in Los Angeles an attempt has been made to adapt instruction in English to the needs of various classes of students. The conditions in this school are somewhat unusual. Each term the English department is inundated with new students from all parts of the United States, with all types of preparation. Los Angeles is a gay playground to which pleasure-seekers and ease-lovers come, not to study, but to take the sun in their "jitneys." To maintain the very modest standards of the department and to provide for ordered growth in expressional powers, while not neglecting the slow cultural growth which comes from live contacts with good literature, a system of graded instruction has been worked out. This system was devised also to provide for the marked individual differences which are presented each year by the entering class.

The entering class has from 450 to 500 students. They bring promotion cards ungraded as to subjects of study, except in those cases in which the work was unsatisfactory. A check opposite a given subject indicates unsatisfactory work.

On the basis of a check, or the absence of a check, entering students are immediately separated into "express" and "accommodation" classes. Twelve to eighteen classes of each grade are organized each term so that it is possible to run parallel "express" and "accommodation" classes throughout the periods of the day, and thus no insurmountable difficulties are encountered in transferring a student from one group to the other after tests or class work have demonstrated the advisability of such transfer. The "express" classes of the mentally more alert and better prepared enrol from eight to ten more students than the "accommodation" classes. Twenty-five in the "accommodation" classes is our ideal, but overcrowding now compels classes of twenty-eight to thirty. The "express" classes range from thirty-eight to forty. The speech training and form work are identical in the two types of classes; the difference, so far as the course of study is concerned, is in the extra amount of school and home reading required of "express" sections.

In addition to "express" and "accommodation" groups, organized on the basis described, there are special classes encouragingly styled "opportunity" groups. These are for students markedly below the average of the "accommodation" groups.

An "opportunity" group meets five times a week, with or without credit at the option of the teacher depending on the accomplishment of the individual. One such type of class is for those inadequately prepared in English form and in methods of self-help and study as well as for the abnormally slow or mentally deficient. Borderline cases and occasional morons add to the complexity, if not the gayety, of this class. Individual supervised study, using the problem-project method, is pursued. Some members of the class continue in this group through their school career; others leave when they attain minimum essentials for a given grade with power of self-help and speed sufficient to keep up with a normal class. The school never enrolls more than twenty students in one

of these classes. There are now two such "opportunity" classes. One is a straight development group of sixteen, all of whom will probably continue throughout their entire English course in this class; the other is a mixed group whose subnormal members will be transferred to the development groups as soon as it is certain they belong there.

There are other special classes known as "adjustment" or "make-up" groups. One such is in penmanship and is designed to give practice in legible penmanship and neat written form. No outside practice or preparation is required. Spelling, word study, and paragraph writing give content and make this drill class purposeful as well as creatively interesting. No credit is given in any "make-up" class, though the student may pursue his regular course if he is assigned to only one "make-up" in a given term. If two or more "make-ups" are taken, the student automatically stops his regular course until he has removed these conditions, unless the head of the English department grants special permission to continue.

Other special classes are organized in spelling, oral reading, sentence study, oral composition, and the like. None of these is to be thought of as a matter of separate interest, except where the student's individual needs call for reinforced instruction in that particular line. So far as possible, the whole scheme is one of adaptation of instruction to the individual equipment and needs of students.

MARY C. TRUMMER

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